LINKING BELIEFS ABOUT LEARNING AND TEACHING WITH ORGANIZATIONAL DECISIONS pdf

1: The 10 NAEYC Program Standards | NAEYC

beliefs of learning with a focus on pure subject-matter knowledge) and modern beliefs (beliefs based on constructivistic learning, student-oriented classroom structures, and an orientation on more general educational skills, including Scientific Literacy for all).

Share on Facebook Click me! Share on Twitter Click me! Copy Link One of the things most effective teachers do is create an education philosophy where they identify their core beliefs about teaching and learning and determine how those will drive their actions in the classroom and beyond. Taking a cue from This I Believe , the international organization that gets people to describe "the core values that guide their daily lives," in an op-ed for the Huffington Post Lehmann asks us, "What are your 10 most core beliefs? What would happen if we all started posting them? I believe that, in the end, if we were serious about reforming education in this country, we would start with three simple but expensive premises: No classes over 20 in K No classes over 25 in No schools over Pay teachers a living wage. I believe that we have the ability to make this happen in this country, but not the political will. And I believe that is a national failure for which we all are responsible. Lehmann then goes on to list out what he believes about other hotly debated education issuesâ€"from class size to making learning student-centered and applicable to real world problems. He finishes his list with a statement that every educator, parent, and community member should find it pretty easy to agree with: I believe in my students. I believe in their ability. I believe in their creativity. I believe in their intelligence. I believe in their dedication to the things they believe in. I believe in their energy. I believe in their innocence, even when they try to act more worldly than they are. I believe in their insight. I believe in their ability to overcome obstacles in their lives that would make many of us want to give up. We all know words are powerful and in a world where so many pundits, policymakers, and politicians tell us what we should believe about education, actually taking the time to name what it is you believe is invaluable.

LINKING BELIEFS ABOUT LEARNING AND TEACHING WITH ORGANIZATIONAL DECISIONS pdf

2: The Culture/Learning Style Connection - Educational Leadership

At the school level, evidence is quite strong in identifying, for example, school mission and goals, culture, teachers' participation in decision making, and relationships with parents and the wider community as potentially powerful determinants of student learning.

Examples in History, Mathematics, and Science The preceding chapter explored implications of research on learning for general issues relevant to the design of effective learning environments. We now move to a more detailed exploration of teaching and learning in three disciplines: We chose these three areas in order to focus on the similarities and differences of disciplines that use different methods of inquiry and analysis. A major goal of our discussion is to explore the knowledge required to teach effectively in a diversity of disciplines. We noted in Chapter 2 that expertise in particular areas involves more than a set of general problem-solving skills; it also requires well-organized knowledge of concepts and inquiry procedures. Different disciplines are organized differently and have different approaches to inquiry. For example, the evidence needed to support a set of historical claims is different from the evidence needed to prove a mathematical conjecture, and both of these differ from the evidence needed to test a scientific theory. Discussion in Chapter 2 also differentiated between expertise in a discipline and the ability to help others learn about that discipline. Pedagogical content knowledge is different from knowledge of general teaching methods. In short, their knowledge of the discipline and their knowledge of pedagogy interact. But knowledge of the discipline structure does not in itself guide the teacher. For example, expert teachers are sensitive to those aspects of the discipline that are especially hard or easy for new students to master. Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: Examples in History, Mathematics, and Science. Brain, Mind, Experience, and School: The National Academies Press. These conceptual barriers differ from discipline to discipline. An emphasis on interactions between disciplinary knowledge and pedagogical knowledge directly contradicts common misconceptions about what teachers need to know in order to design effective learning environments for their students. The misconceptions are that teaching consists only of a set of general methods, that a good teacher can teach any subject, or that content knowledge alone is sufficient. Some teachers are able to teach in ways that involve a variety of disciplines. However, their ability to do so requires more than a set of general teaching skills. Consider the case of Barb Johnson, who has been a sixth-grade teacher for 12 years at Monroe Middle School. By conventional standards Monroe is a good school. Standardized test scores are about average, class size is small, the building facilities are well maintained, the administrator is a strong instructional leader, and there is little faculty and staff turnover. What happens in her classroom that gives it the reputation of being the best of the best? During the first week of school Barb Johnson asks her sixth graders two questions: After the students list their individual questions, Barb organizes the students into small groups where they share lists and search for questions they have in common. After much discussion each group comes up with a priority list of questions, rank-ordering the questions about themselves and those about the world. The students had the opportunity to seek out information from family members, friends, experts in various fields, on-line computer services, and books, as well as from the teacher. Sometimes we fall short of our goal. At the end of an investigation, Barb Johnson works with the students to help them see how their investigations relate to conventional subject-matter areas. They create a chart on which they tally experiences in language and literacy, mathematics, science, social studies and history, music, and art. Students often are surprised at how much and how varied their learning is. It would not work to simply arm new teachers with general strategies that mirror how she teaches and encourage them to use this approach in their classrooms. Unless they have the relevant disciplinary knowledge, the teachers and the classes would quickly become lost. At the same time, disciplinary knowledge without knowledge about how students learn i. In the remainder of this chapter, we present illustrations and discussions of exemplary teaching in history, mathematics, and science. The three examples of history, mathematics, and science are designed to convey a sense of the pedagogical knowledge and content

knowledge Shulman, that underlie expert teaching. This view of history is radically different from the way that historians see their work. Students who think that history is about facts and dates miss exciting opportunities to understand how history is a discipline that is guided by particular rules of evidence and how particular analytical skills can be relevant for understanding events in their lives see Ravitch and Finn, Unfortunately, many teachers do not present an exciting approach to history, perhaps because they, too, were taught in the dates-facts method. The study contrasted a group of gifted high school seniors with a group of working historians. Both groups were given a test of facts about the American Revolution taken from the chapter review section of a popular United States history textbook. The historians who had backgrounds in American history knew most of the items, while historians whose specialties lay elsewhere knew only a third of the test facts. Several students scored higher than some historians on the factual pretest. In addition to the test of facts, however, the historians and students were presented with a set of historical documents and asked to sort out competing claims and to formulate reasoned interpretations. The historians excelled at this task. Most students, on the other hand, were stymied. Despite the volume of historical information the students possessed, they had little sense of how to use it productively for forming interpretations of events or for reaching conclusions. Different Views of History by Different Teachers Different views of history affect how teachers teach history. Consider the different types of feedback that Mr. Kelsey gave a student paper; see Box 7. Barnes saw the papers as an indication of the bell-shaped distribution of abilities; Ms. Kelsey saw them as representing the misconception that history is about memorizing a mass of information and recounting a series of facts. These two teachers had very different ideas about the nature of learning history. Those ideas affected how they taught and what they wanted their students to achieve. Rather than simply introduce students to sets of facts to be learned, these teachers help people to understand the problematic nature of historical interpretation and analysis and to appreciate the relevance of history for their everyday lives. One example of outstanding history teaching comes from the classroom of Bob Bain, a public school teacher in Beechwood, Ohio. Historians, he notes, are cursed with an abundance of data—the traces of the past threaten to overwhelm them unless they find some way of separating what is important from what is peripheral. The assumptions that historians hold about significance shape how they write their histories, the data they select, and the narrative they compose, as well as the larger schemes they bring to organize and periodize the past. Often these assumptions about historical significance remain unarticulated in the classroom. Bob Bain begins his ninth-grade high school class by having all the students create a time capsule of what they think are the most important artifacts from the past. In this way, the students explicitly articulate their underlying assumptions of what constitutes historical significance. At first, students apply the rules rigidly and algorithmically, with little understanding that just as they made the rules, they can also change them. But as students become more practiced in plying their judgments of significance, they come to see the rules as tools for assaying the arguments of different historians, which allows them to begin to understand why historians disagree. Leinhardt and Greeno , spent 2 years studying a highly accomplished teacher of advanced placement history in an urban high school in Pittsburgh.

3: Organizational Culture

In this chapter we focus on teachers' beliefs about student learning and motivation and their manifestation in classroom instruction. Teachers' beliefs appear to reflect longstanding attitudes, "common sense," and their experiences in education rather than research-based knowledge about learning.

Learning Principles Theory and Research-based Principles of Learning The following list presents the basic principles that underlie effective learning. These principles are distilled from research from a variety of disciplines. Students come into our courses with knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes gained in other courses and through daily life. As students bring this knowledge to bear in our classrooms, it influences how they filter and interpret what they are learning. However, when knowledge is inert, insufficient for the task, activated inappropriately, or inaccurate, it can interfere with or impede new learning. How students organize knowledge influences how they learn and apply what they know. Students naturally make connections between pieces of knowledge. When those connections form knowledge structures that are accurately and meaningfully organized, students are better able to retrieve and apply their knowledge effectively and efficiently. In contrast, when knowledge is connected in inaccurate or random ways, students can fail to retrieve or apply it appropriately. As students enter college and gain greater autonomy over what, when, and how they study and learn, motivation plays a critical role in guiding the direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of the learning behaviors in which they engage. When students find positive value in a learning goal or activity, expect to successfully achieve a desired learning outcome, and perceive support from their environment, they are likely to be strongly motivated to learn. To develop mastery, students must acquire component skills, practice integrating them, and know when to apply what they have learned. Students must develop not only the component skills and knowledge necessary to perform complex tasks, they must also practice combining and integrating them to develop greater fluency and automaticity. Finally, students must learn when and how to apply the skills and knowledge they learn. As instructors, it is important that we develop conscious awareness of these elements of mastery so as to help our students learn more effectively. Learning and performance are best fostered when students engage in practice that focuses on a specific goal or criterion, targets an appropriate level of challenge, and is of sufficient quantity and frequency to meet the performance criteria. Students are not only intellectual but also social and emotional beings, and they are still developing the full range of intellectual, social, and emotional skills. While we cannot control the developmental process, we can shape the intellectual, social, emotional, and physical aspects of classroom climate in developmentally appropriate ways. In fact, many studies have shown that the climate we create has implications for our students. To become self-directed learners, students must learn to monitor and adjust their approaches to learning. Learners may engage in a variety of metacognitive processes to monitor and control their learningâ€"assessing the task at hand, evaluating their own strengths and weaknesses, planning their approach, applying and monitoring various strategies, and reflecting on the degree to which their current approach is working. Unfortunately, students tend not to engage in these processes naturally. When students develop the skills to engage these processes, they gain intellectual habits that not only improve their performance but also their effectiveness as learners. Skill acquisition and the LISP tutor. Self-regulation of motivation and action through internal standards and goal systems. On the self-regulation of behavior. American Journal of Physics, 50, A study of knowledge-based learning. Cognitive Science, 6, Beliefs that make smart people dumb. Goals, emotions and personal agency beliefs. The long-term retention of training and instruction pp. Interest, a motivational variable that combines affective and cognitive functioning. Integrative perspectives on intellectual functioning and development pp. Analogical thinking and human intelligence. Student Success in College: Creating Conditions That Matter. National Research Council Knowing What Students Know: The Science and Design of Educational Assessment. Brain, Mind, Experience, and School. How College Affects Students. An emerging conceptualization of epistemological beliefs and their role in learning. The Transfer of

Cognitive Skill. Stereotype threat and the intellectual test performance of African Americans. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69 5 , A question of belonging: Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 92 1 ,

4: What Are Your Core Beliefs About Education? | GOOD

Abstract. The links uncovered by research connecting teacher beliefs to classroom practice and student inquiry-based learning are tenuous. This study aims at examining (a) how teacher beliefs influenced practices; and (b) how the influence on practices, in turn, impacted student inquiry learning in a CSCL environment.

Leadership and Management Standard 1: Relationships The program promotes positive relationships among all children and adults. Warm, sensitive, and responsive relationships help children feel secure. The safe and secure environments built by positive relationships help children thrive physically, benefit from learning experiences, and cooperate and get along with others. What to look for in a program: Children and adults feel welcome when they visit the program. Teachers help new children adjust to the program environment and make friends with other children. Children are encouraged to play and work together. Teachers help children resolve conflicts by identifying feelings, describing problems, and trying alternative solutions. Teaching staff never physically punish children. Back to top Standard 2: Curriculum The program implements a curriculum that is consistent with its goals for children and promotes learning and development in each of the following areas: A well-planned written curriculum provides a guide for teachers and administrators. The curriculum includes goals for the content that children are learning, planned activities linked to these goals, daily schedules and routines, and materials to be used. The curriculum should not focus on just one area of development. Children are given opportunities to learn and develop through exploration and play, and teachers have opportunities to work with individual children and small groups on specific skills. Activities are designed to help children get better at reasoning, solving problems, getting along with others, using language, and developing other skills. Back to top Standard 3: Children have different learning styles, needs, capacities, interests, and backgrounds. By recognizing these differences and using instructional approaches that are appropriate for each child, teachers and staff help all children learn. Teachers carefully supervise all children. Teachers provide time each day for indoor and outdoor activities weather permitting and organize time and space so that children have opportunities to work or play individually and in groups. Teachers modify strategies and materials to respond to the needs and interests of individual children, engaging each child and enhancing learning. Back to top Standard 4: These assessments occur within the context of reciprocal communications with families and with sensitivity to the cultural contexts in which children develop. Assessment results benefit children by informing sound decisions, teaching, and program improvement. Assessments can also help teachers identify children with disabilities and ensuring that they receive needed services. Teachers use assessment methods and information to design goals for individual children and monitor their progress, as well as to improve the program and its teaching strategies. Back to top Standard 5: Health The program promotes the nutrition and health of children and protects children and staff from illness and injury. Children must be healthy and safe in order to learn and grow. Teaching staff have training in pediatric first aid. Infants are placed on their backs to sleep. The program has policies regarding regular hand washing and routinely cleans and sanitizes all surfaces in the facility. There is a clear plan for responding to illness, including how to decide whether a child needs to go home and how families will be notified. Snacks and meals are nutritious, and food is prepared and stored safely. Back to top Standard 6: Teachers who have specific preparation, knowledge, and skills in child development and early childhood education are more likely to provide positive interactions, richer language experiences, and quality learning environments. Teaching staff have educational qualifications and specialized knowledge about young children and early childhood development. The program makes provisions for ongoing staff development, including orientations for new staff and opportunities for continuing education. Back to top Standard 7: These relationships are sensitive to family composition, language, and culture. All families are welcome and encouraged to be involved in all aspects of the program. Teachers and staff talk with families about their family structure and their views on childrearing and use that information to adapt the curriculum and teaching methods to the

families served. The program uses a variety of strategies to communicate with families, including family conferences, new family orientations, and individual conversations. Program information—including policies and operating procedures—is provided in a language that families can understand. Back to top Standard 8: The program connects with and uses museums, parks, libraries, zoos, and other resources in the community. Representatives from community programs, such as musical performers and local artists, are invited to share their interests and talents with the children. Back to top Standard 9: Physical Environment The program has a safe and healthful environment that provides appropriate and well-maintained indoor and outdoor physical environments. The environment includes facilities, equipment, and materials to facilitate child and staff learning and development. An organized, properly equipped, and well-maintained program environment facilitates the learning, comfort, health, and safety of the children and adults who use the program. The facility is designed so that staff can supervise all children by sight and sound. The program has necessary furnishings, such as hand-washing sinks, child-size chairs and tables, and cots, cribs, beds, or sleeping pads. Outdoor play areas have fences or natural barriers that prevent access to streets and other hazards. First-aid kits, fire extinguishers, fire alarms, and other safety equipment are installed and available. Back to top Standard Leadership and Management The program effectively implements policies, procedures, and systems that support stable staff and strong personnel, and fiscal, and program management so all children, families, and staff have high-quality experiences. Effective management and operations, knowledgeable leaders, and sensible policies and procedures are essential to building a quality program and maintaining the quality over time. The program administrator has the necessary educational qualifications, including a degree from a four-year college and specialized courses in early childhood education, child development, or related fields. Appropriate group sizes and ratios of teaching staff to children are maintained for example, infants—no more than 8 children in a group, with 2 teaching staff; toddlers—no more than 12 children in a group, with 2 teaching staff; and 4-year-olds—no more than 20 children in a group, with 2 teaching staff.

postulated, teachers make decisions about classroom instruction in light of theoretical beliefs they hold about teaching and learning. Teachers' beliefs influence their goals, procedures.

Our ability to give every child a chance to succeed in school depends upon a full understanding of culture and learning styles. After all, effective educational decisions and practices must emanate from an understanding of the ways that individuals learn. Consequently, knowing each student, especially his or her culture, is essential preparation for facilitating, structuring, and validating successful learning for all students. This imperative leads to three critical questions. Do students of the same culture have common learning style patterns and characteristics? If they do, how would we know it? And most important, what are the implications for educators? These questions are both important and controversial. They are important because we need all the information we can get to help every learner succeed in school and because our understanding of the learning process is the basis for decisions about curriculum and instruction. One reason that the linkage between culture and learning styles is controversial is that generalizations about a group of people have often led to naive inferences about individuals within that group. Although people connected by culture do exhibit a characteristic pattern of style preferences, it is a serious error to conclude that all members of the group have the same style traits as the group taken as a whole. A second source of controversy is the understandable sensitivity surrounding attempts to explain the persistent achievement differences between minority and nonminority students—it is all too easy to confuse descriptions of differences with explanations for deficits. Finally, the relationship between culture and learning styles is controversial because it brings us face to face with philosophical issues that involve deeply held beliefs. Debaters in the uniformity versus diversity dispute, for instance, differ over whether instructional equality is synonymous with educational equity. Another debate concerns the ultimate purpose of schooling. A highly public example of how sensitive these issues are occurred in when the state of New York published a booklet to help decrease the student dropout rate. A small section of the booklet described the learning styles typical of minority students and identified certain patterns associated with African-American students. These descriptions became the subject of intense scrutiny and animated debate. Eventually, the descriptions were deleted from the booklet. How We Know That Culture and Ways of Learning Are Linked There is very little disagreement that a relationship does exist between the culture in which children live or from which they are descended and their preferred ways of learning. This relationship, further, is directly related to academic, social, and emotional success in school. These conclusions are not as simple or definite as they seem, however. Though many syntheses and surveys have discussed the interdynamics of different cultures and ways of learning, each comes from a very distinctive approach, focusing either on a specific learning style model or a particular cultural group. No work, to my knowledge, claims to be comprehensive on the topic of culture and learning styles. In general, researchers have reported three kinds of information about culture and learning styles. The first is the set of observation-based descriptions of cultural groups of learners. For the most part, people who are familiar with each group have written these descriptions to sensitize people outside the culture to the experiences of children inside the culture. The reports conclude that Mexican Americans regard family and personal relationships as important and are comfortable with cognitive generalities and patterns Cox and Ramirez , Vasquez Such traits explain why Mexican-American students often seek a personal relationship with a teacher and are more comfortable with broad concepts than component facts and specifics. Research about the African-American culture shows that students often value oral experiences, physical activity, and loyalty in interpersonal relationships Shade , Hilliard These traits call for classroom activities that include approaches like discussion, active projects, and collaborative work. Descriptions indicate that Native-American people generally value and develop acute visual discrimination and skills in the use of imagery, perceive globally, have reflective thinking patterns, and generally value and develop acute visual discrimination and skills in the use of imagery

Shade , More , Bert and Bert Thus, schooling should establish a context for new information, provide quiet times for thinking, and emphasize visual stimuli. In contrast, the observers describe mainstream white Americans as valuing independence, analytic thinking, objectivity, and accuracy. These values translate into learning experiences that focus on competition, information, tests and grades, and linear logic. These patterns are prevalent in most American schools. A second way that we know about the links between culture and learning styles is data-based descriptions of specific groups. The various formal assessment instruments that purport to measure learning styles detect differences in two general ways. In the category of instruments that looks for style preferences, respondents usually self-report their favored approaches to learning. The best known instrument of this kind is probably the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. It infers learning style patterns from basic perceptual and judging traits. Another type of assessment instrument tests style strengths, that is, the ability to do tasks with a certain approach. The Swassing-Barbe Modality Index, for example, asks test takers to repeat patterns given auditorily, visually, and tactilely. Another example is the well-known series of assessments that distinguishes between field-dependence and independence. In this series, the test taker tries to find a simple figure embedded in a more complex one. The results show differences in cognitive strengths, such as global, holistic learning in contrast to analytic, part-to-whole approaches. Formal assessment data should be interpreted though often, it is not in the light of the kind of assessment used. An important fact about self-report instruments, for instance, is that they are language- and culture-specific. In other words, when test takers respond to specific words, they interpret the words through their cultural experiences. Further, different assessments may yield conflicting results. For instance, someone might self-report a preference for learning something in a certain way and yet test out in a different way on a task involving strengths. It is equally possible for descriptions based on observations to conflict with self-reported preferences. These inconsistencies do not invalidate the usefulness of each of the ways of assessing learning styles. They do point out, however, that understanding learning patterns is a complex task and that the scope of the diagnostic tool used imposes limits on generalizations that can be drawn on the basis of it. Further, the characteristics of the assessment instruments used often account for the seemingly contradictory information reported about groups of learners. The third way we know about the relationship of learning and culture is through direct discussion. Shade , for instance, comments that: Cognitive styles research, Ramirez believes, could help accommodate children who see things differently. If classroom expectations are limited by our own cultural orientations, we impede successful learners guided by another cultural orientation. If we only teach according to the ways we ourselves learn best, we are also likely to thwart successful learners who may share our cultural background but whose learning styles deviate from our own. Accepted Conclusions About Culture and Learning Styles Those who study culture and those who study learning styles generally agree on at least five points. Educators concur that students of any particular age will differ in their ways of learning. Guild and Garger Both empirical research and experiences validate these learning style differences, which in their cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions, help us to understand and talk about individual learning processes. Most researchers believe that learning styles are a function of both nature and nurture. Myers asserts that: Type development starts at a very early age. The hypothesis is that type is inborn, an innate predisposition like right- or left-handedness, but the successful development of type can be greatly helped or hindered by environment. Some researchers downplay the innate aspects of learning style, preferring to focus on the impact of environment. Many place great importance on the early socialization that occurs within the family, immediate culture, and wider culture. Most researchers also believe that learning styles are neutral Guild and Garger Every learning style approach can be used successfully, but can also become a stumbling block if applied inappropriately or overused. This concept in the learning styles literature says a great deal about the effects of different learning approaches with different school tasks. Without question, for example, an active, kinesthetic learner has a more difficult time in school because of the limited opportunities to use that approach, especially for the development of basic skills. Nonetheless, the kinesthetic approach is a successful way to learn, and many adults, including teachers and administrators, use this approach quite effectively. In both observational

and data-based research on cultures, one consistent finding is that, within a group, the variations among individuals are as great as their commonalities. Therefore, no one should automatically attribute a particular learning style to all individuals within a group Griggs and Dunn This subtle point is often verbally acknowledged, but ignored in practice. Cox and Ramirez explain the result: Recognition and identification of The positive effect has been the development of an awareness of the types of learning that our public schools tend to foster Finally, many authors acknowledge the cultural conflict between some students and the typical learning experiences in schools. When a child is socialized in ways that are inconsistent with school expectations and patterns, the child needs to make a difficult daily adjustment to the culture of the school and his or her teachers. Hale-Benson points out the added burden this adjustment places on black youngsters: Debates About Applying Theory on Culture and Learning Styles The published literature recommends caution in applying knowledge about culture and learning styles to the classroom. This prudence seems advisable because, despite the accepted ideas, at least five differences of opinion persist. People differ, for instance, on whether educators should acquire more explicit knowledge about particular cultural values and expectations. Proponents say that such knowledge would enable educators to be more sensitive and effective with students of particular cultures. Certain states even mandate such information as part of their goals for multiculturalism. Other authors argue, however, that describing cultures has resulted in more stereotyping and may well lead to a differentiated, segregated approach to curriculum. Authors also debate the proper response to the fact that the culture-learning styles relationship affects student achievement. Evidence suggests that students with particular learning style traits field-dependent, sensing, extraversion are underachievers in school, irrespective of their cultural group. Students with such dominant learning style patterns have limited opportunities to use their style strengths in the classroom. With the current emphasis on the inclusion of all learners in classrooms, it seems essential to change that practice. Another achievement problem is the serious inequity that results when certain cultures value behaviors that are undervalued in school. Will increased attention to culture and learning styles eradicate this problem? Hilliard thinks not: Children, no matter what their style, are failing primarily because of systemic inequities in the delivery of whatever pedagogical approach the teachers claim to masterâ€"not because students cannot learn from teachers whose styles do not match their own. We must be careful

district role in improving teaching and learning (Beyond Islands of Excellence) and edited and contributed to a book of case studies of school improvement projects in East Africa, Improving Schools Through Teacher Development.

Teaching, learning, and coaching beliefs and practices of instructional coaches Opening The number of instructional coaches hired by school districts has more than doubled since the introduction of federal standards requiring an ongoing and focused attention on the professional development of teachers Domina et al. This means that the majority of school districts across the United States now employ instructional coaches to work with teachers to provide professional development, implement standards-based policy, and improve teacher effectiveness in the classroom by building instructional capacity. Many of these new instructional coaches are former classroom teachers with a high level of instructional expertise, but limited experience with professional development, instructional coaching or knowledge of the complex roles they have been asked to assume Gallucci et al. Topic This research study will examine the teaching, learning, and coaching beliefs and practices of instructional coaches. In their organizational role, coaches build instructional capacity among teachers, helping teachers to develop the processes to affect whole school improvement. In their reform role, coaches frame policy messages and help teachers to make sense of and implement the practices of policy reform in their classrooms. These two seemingly similar, yet different, purposes have resulted in numerous types of instructional coaches and a variety of roles that coaches assume depending on their school and program context. As a result, the position of instructional coach differs widely and the perceptions of the roles of the coach may not always align with their assigned tasks and responsibilities. Many instructional coaches enter the position directly from the classroom and the training they receive is often limited and may or may not align with the work they are doing with teachers. As a result, instructional coaches are constantly working to make meaning of their role. This study will explore these ideas through the lens of organizational sensemaking, which focuses on how individuals make meaning of their experiences and then act on that understanding. Significance The current body of knowledge examining instructional coaches own beliefs and perceptions of their work is minimal and little is known about how these perceptions influence their coaching practices or how coaches perform their various roles. It is important that instructional coaches have a greater understanding of the various roles they are asked to play and the complexity of their roles because they, knowingly or unknowingly, act as sensemakers for classroom teachers as they make decisions about what policy messages teachers focus on, thereby influencing how the policies are ultimately implemented into classroom practice. District and school leaders will also benefit from this knowledge as they make decisions about instructional coaching programs and aligning the work of their coaches with the goals of the school or district. This understanding also has the potential to impact how leaders support their instructional coaches in affecting policy change in the classroom through the professional learning that coaches receive. Problem Statement Current educational policies and reform efforts have increasingly called for improved teacher practice that leads to increased student achievement surrounding academic standards Galey, As a broad definition, instructional coaches are full-time professional developers, working on-site with teachers to incorporate research-based instructional practices into their classrooms Knight, Therefore, these novice coaches must learn to navigate the tension that exists between meeting the needs of the individual teachers they serve and the needs of the system in which they were hired. Galey classifies these roles into three broad categories: In their cognitive role, coaches work with individual and small groups of teachers to improve classroom practice. In their organizational role, coaches work toward building instructional capacity and collegial sharing among teachers. In their reform role, coaches use their position to influence teachers and implement systemic reforms at the classroom level. Organization In the following sections, this dissertation will examine the complexity of the roles and practices of instructional coaches in an era of educational reform. The first section describes organizational sensemaking, the conceptual framework of this study, which focuses

on how people make meaning of their circumstances to inform their sense of identity and guide their behaviors. Next, the literature review will examine the educational environment in which instructional coaching exists, the types and roles of coaches, and the complexity of the roles of coaches. A review of the methodological literature will focus on how researchers have approached the study of instructional coaching. Then, a discussion of the methodological issues will discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the methodological approaches used in the research of instructional coaching. The synthesis section will pull together the various elements of the literature review to present a picture of the current state of instructional coaching. Next, the critique section will examine the strengths and weaknesses of prior research studies to identify where and how this dissertation contributes to the larger body of instructional coaching research literature. Finally, a summary of the chapter will identify the key elements of the discussion and describe the need for the current study. Other research around this time characterized the American educational system as being bureaucratic, fragmented, unresponsive to change, and ineffective, especially in the sense that school leaders lacked influence over the important instructional work taking place in classrooms Taylor, This lead to a proliferation of research centered on characteristics of effective schools: Their previous research had shown that even with strong professional development experiences, few teachers who had learned a new skill or instructional approach would add it to their classroom practice on a regular basis. Other researchers began to investigate this staff development model and a strong research base for peer coaching developed, which eventually served as a foundation for the instructional coaching models that emerged from the provisions of the No Child Left Behind Act of NCLB. The No Child Left Behind Act mandated that states and school districts include provisions for hiring highly qualified teachers and creating school improvement plans that included professional development for teachers. Department of Education, , p. Instructional coaching also adheres to the principles of high quality professional development: As more and more schools are hiring instructional coaches to help meet the professional learning needs of their staff, the available research is also increasing. Types of Instructional Coaches One of the obstacles researchers have encountered in studying instructional coaching is defining the roles and responsibilities of the instructional coach due to the multiple approaches and models available for categorizing the work of the coach. In a study of elementary literacy coaches, Deussen et al. Coaches have also been described by their purpose within the school: Galey has classified the many roles of instructional coaches into three broad categories based on their function: The cognitive role of instructional coaches. In their cognitive role, coaches focus on teacher development for the purpose of improving instruction and student learning. Student achievement is impacted most when teacher professional learning is connected to their application of knowledge to classroom planning and instruction Darling-Hammond et al. To accomplish this, coaches work in partnership with teachers, helping teachers to identify areas in which they would like to see improvement in their instruction, assessment, classroom management, or student achievement Mudzimiri et al. In this work, coaches typically engage teachers in a cycle of planning, observation, modeling, reflecting, and conferencing that is focused on collaboratively identifying a goal or strategy to improve classroom practice, practicing and implementing the strategy, and monitoring the implementation of the strategy as well as student outcomes to determine whether the goal is being met Akhavan, ; Knight et al. The organizational role of instructional coaches. Researchers have found that facilitating professional learning that emphasizes teacher collaboration and inquiry is a key factor in promoting school change that impacts both individual classrooms and the school as a whole Darling-Hammond et al. In their organizational role, coaches focus on building the instructional capacity of teachers through their own collaboration with teachers and their work with facilitating professional learning communities and collaboration among teachers. Vanderburg and Stephens found that teachers also value this type of professional learning, which might include coach-led study groups with discussions, the sharing of teaching experiences, and connecting with the same content teachers in other grade levels. This brokering is both vertical and horizontal and internal and external. In addition to this exchange of information within the organizational system, coaches also bring outside knowledge into the school to continue to encourage ongoing

improvement through new instructional practices and new research-based strategies. Fullan and Knight identify this organizational element as crucial to the work of coaches because it is through this work that coaches help to change the culture of the school and connect teachers with the larger educational system as it relates to instructional practice. The reform role of instructional coaches. Instructional coaches also play an important role in implementing and supporting instructional policy in system reform. To do this, coaches act as knowledge managers, which allow them to provide context and vision for what reform can be in their particular school setting. As intermediaries between district leaders, coaches routinely frame instructional policies for teachers and school leaders, which can influence how teachers understand and implement the policies in their classrooms Coburn, Coburn and Woulfin found that coaches played a significant role in helping teachers to implement policy initiatives into their classroom practice. The Professional Development of Instructional Coaches The role of instructional coach is fairly new in many school and districts and, as a result, many instructional coaches are hired directly from their classrooms with a high level of instructional expertise and years of classroom experience, but with limited experience with instructional coaching or facilitating professional development experiences for adults Gallucci et al. At the same time, instructional coaching requires more than just acquiring additional knowledge and skills, it requires a professional identity that is different from a teaching identity Chval et al. As a result, instructional coaches, especially novice coaches, benefit from professional learning that is focused specifically on developing the unique skills and competencies of coaches Gallucci et al. Burkins and Ritchie identified three layers of relating that coaches need to develop that include being qualified to make instructional decisions to support teachers as they support their students, to understand what is required to coach adults, use effective change strategies, and maintain a reflective stance, and to offer support to and be supported by other coaches. In a survey of literacy coaches, Blarney, Meyer, and Walpole found that graduate level coursework, district level professional development focused on coaching, and professional readings were the most common forms of professional learning in both their initial preparation and ongoing training as instructional coaches. Mangin and Dunsmore also found that the type of professional development that coaches receive can also create challenges. For example, the training that many instructional coaches receive, especially in the practitioner literature, is framed in the context of supporting individual teacher change. Characteristics of Effective Instructional Coaches Researchers have identified many different characteristics of effective instructional coaches, but there are several characteristics which are found across multiple studies. Another common characteristic of effective coaches is their use of a plan in their work with teachers. Effective coaches have a plan in place to focus their work and to serve as a roadmap for their interactions with teachers during coaching conversations, including teacher goals, evidence of progress, and student work showing outcomes of the coaching work Knight et al. The Impact of Coaches on Teachers and Classroom Practice Researchers have noted the influence of instructional coaches on teacher efficacy, teacher agency, and classroom practices that have the potential to impact student achievement. In a similar vein, Ellington, Whitenack, and Edwards found that math teachers who are highly engaged with a mathematics instructional coach made changes in how they perceived student learning, leading to a sensemaking approach to learning math rather than a procedural approach. Researchers have also reported higher achievement results on student assessments in middle schools that used mathematics coaching as compared to schools without coaching programs or with coaches who spent less time coaching, especially when new curriculum and standards are being implemented Ellington et al. Challenges Impacting Instructional Coaches Instructional coaches face a wide range of challenges in their work. The definition of coaching roles and responsibilities is also related to the challenges that coaches experience with legitimacy and coherence. When the coaching role is not well-defined or ambiguous, coaches also experience the challenge of attaining legitimacy. Another challenge to legitimacy is the fact that the coach does not always hold a position of authority within a school. The challenge of legitimacy is also tied to the challenge of coherence. Even within a system that demonstrates coherence, the instructional coach still serves a variety of roles, which can lead to challenges in balancing the different roles, leading to coaches feeling overwhelmed and incompetent in their

work Cantrell et al. Coaches must also deal with the emotions that result from their idealized views of their roles coming into conflict with their actual roles as they work with teachers who may not always welcome them into their classrooms or embrace a change in instructional practice, administrators who may not fully understand their roles, and frustration from dealing with managerial tasks that take them away from their primary work as coaches Chval et al. Much of the research on instructional coaching has come from the study of elementary literacy coaches and the outcomes may not always be generalizable to other types of coaches or coaches in middle schools or high schools Riddle Buly et al. Teachers in secondary schools have often received different messages about student learning than elementary teachers. Researchers have identified two primary stances that coaches take in their relationships with teachers in response to this role: In his study of literacy coaches, Ippolito identified three mechanisms that coaches use to navigate the tensions. He found that coaches will shift between the two stances during a single coaching session, recognizing that different approaches are needed at different times and for different purposes. Many coaches have also turned to protocols to help them facilitate the coaching conversation, to set norms, and establish routines for interacting collaboratively with teachers. A final strategy, highly dependent upon the support of administrators, was shared leadership roles, in which the instructional practices and goals of the principal, teacher, and coach were aligned Ippolito, Gibbons and Cobb identify the concept of a professional vision, distinct from a vision of teaching, that coaches develop that helps them to be able to make decisions regarding how they work with teachers and they activities they choose to use. This professional vision develops from the knowledge, understanding, and perceptions that coaches hold about teaching, learning, and coaching. They believed that these roles allowed them to demonstrate their knowledge and build their credibility, develop positive working relationships with teachers, and build trust Smith, Coaches had the perception that they needed to prove themselves as experts to the administrators and teachers with whom they work, especially in situations where their role was unclear or expectations for their role was varied Domina et al. Smith also found that coaches felt that establishing a positive working environment with teachers was a central factor in being able to work with teachers on instructional practices and they did so through flexibility in their scheduling of coaching, establishing clarity and purpose in their observations and conversations, and considering the impact of their words while providing feedback. Ferguson found that literacy coaches perceived success in their work as increases in student achievement as evidenced by scores on reading assessments, in seeing teachers implementing the literacy initiatives into their classroom practice, through an increase in professional dialogue among teachers, and an increase the number of teachers seeking out coaching opportunities from the literacy coach. Essay UK - http: Search our thousands of essays: There are UK writers just like me on hand, waiting to help you. Each of us is qualified to a high level in our area of expertise, and we can write you a fully researched, fully referenced complete original answer to your essay question. Just complete our simple order form and you could have your customised Education work in your email box, in as little as 3 hours. About this resource This Education essay was submitted to us by a student in order to help you with your studies.

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that CEOs use to deal with their beliefs about work/family issues and programs. These beliefs are in turn influenced by life experiences and personality factors, and may also be influenced by other factors such as age or education.

The second part outlines some characteristics of teacher beliefs by providing examples from a range of research studies conducted in the field. The author claims that central kernels theory provides a clear distinction between peripheral and core beliefs. Beliefs, core beliefs, peripheral beliefs, central kernels theory, teacher education Introduction Teaching is a dynamic process that requires on-the-spot decision making and acting to meet the needs of learners. The belief construct involves a multitude of complex and interacting agents. Substantial amount of research concerning L2 teacher belief has been conducted in diverse contexts. In the L2 belief literature, influenced by different theories from diverse disciplines L2 teacher beliefs have appeared under different names e. In some cases, different terms are used to define the same concept and in other cases, the same label is utilized to explain different notions. Borg a reviewed 64 L2 teacher belief studies from thes until the year and documented seventeen different teacher belief terminologies that appeared in these studies. The L2 teacher belief literature is vast and covers a wide range of topics. Some researchers have looked into L2 teacher beliefs by focusing on some common L2 issues such as: In the first part of the paper, drawing upon the L2 teacher belief literature, I provide a brief description of some factors that influence L2-teacher-belief-formation. In the second part, I sketch some differing characteristics of L2 teacher beliefs by providing anecdotal, experiential and empirical examples from the L2 teacher belief literature. Factors Influencing Teacher Belief Formation There is now a consensus that L2 teachers acquire their beliefs about teaching through their life experiences in society, prior schooling, professional education, and teaching experience. Cultural beliefs that reflect views of the society the individual has been brought up in, form a kind of base on which the individual constructs other beliefs see Gabillon, Cultural beliefs are considered to be more resistant to change than other beliefs formed later in life. Early relationships with significant others e. Hall claimed that teacher education programs equip teachers with professional knowledge and the knowledge that teachers have on the subject matter, teaching methods, student learning Frontiers of Language and Teaching â€¦ In the same vein, Flores and Day highlighted the strong influence of personal histories and the contextual factors of the workplace. In general, the fact that teacher beliefs are both personal and social is commonly accepted; however, different scholars have put different degrees of emphasis on personal, contextual and social aspects of teacher beliefs. Borg a defined teacher cognition i. Thus, beliefs are considered to be formed early in life and culturally bound. That is, teachers past schooling experiences; their present teaching contexts, and the theoretical professional education they have received directly influence their approaches to teaching Borg, ; Freeman, ; Hall, ; Mok, She claimed that future teachers internalize the teaching models they have been observing as learners. She highlighted the importance Frontiers of Language and Teaching â€¦ Similarly, Cabaroglu and Roberts emphasized both personal and social aspect of teacher beliefs by stating that teacher beliefs are developed through non-stop interactions between personal meaning-making and social validation and invalidation of these meanings. Teacher beliefs are practical and theoretical Teacher beliefs are considered both practical and theoretical entities. Clandinin claimed that teachers develop and use a special kind of knowledge e. He asserted that this knowledge is neither merely theoretical, as regards theories of learning, teaching, and curriculum, nor it is merely practical but composed of both kinds of knowledge, blended by the personal background and characteristics of the teacher Clandinin, Biggs claimed that teachers, influenced by their beliefs, interpret and modify the official theory i. Smith noted that theory in-use i. In their study, they developed a framework to look into the personal-impersonal and theoretical-practical dimensions of teacher belief system. Teacher beliefs are implicit and explicit The literature on teacher beliefs provides us with evidence indicating that teacher beliefs can be both implicit and explicit see Ainscough, ; Borg, ; Breen, ; Freeman, Kagan b defined teacher beliefs as being mostly tacit and

often unconsciously held assumptions about teaching, students, learning and learning materials and so forth. However, some other research done in the field pointed out that some teacher beliefs are more explicit than others are, and that such beliefs are more easily expressed. Her study suggested that non-native L2 teachers could express their understanding of their teaching practices more explicitly than native monolingual L2 teachers could. She claimed that teachers who have already experienced L2 learning would certainly have different beliefs about L2 learning than a native speaker who has never had such an experience. Her research findings asserted that foreign language learning experience builds in powerful insights, which interact with formal professional knowledge, and beliefs gained through informal sources and life experiences. Ainscough claimed that teacher beliefs i. This on-going professional experience which is challenged via interactions with different learning-teaching contexts e. Several research studies conducted on teacher beliefs have supported the view on this dynamic nature of teacher beliefs. His study demonstrated how a group of foreign language teachers incorporated new ideas in their thinking. He noted that during the belief change process the teachers used specific mechanisms to construct new understandings of their teachings. However, we also know that some teacher beliefs especially key beliefs or core beliefs can also be resistant to change. Kagan b stated that there is not enough substantial direct evidence regarding the processes that influence change in teacher beliefs. Kagan a stated that teachers use the theoretical information given in Frontiers of Language and Teaching â€¦ She expressed her views as follows: Candidates tend to use the information provided in coursework to confirm rather than to confront and correct their pre-existing beliefs. Hall claimed that it is more difficult to change beliefs that have been held for a long time see also Macaro, She explained that teacher beliefs which were formed by the influence of their previous experiences as former learners are comparatively more difficult to change than newly formed ones that are still developing. He explained that teachers who believe teaching to be a didactic and authoritarian activity appear to teach in a way quite consistent with this belief system, and teachers who believe learning takes place in a student-directed-activity organize their teaching around appropriate learning activities and encourage student participation. Some research studies also studied possible correlations between different belief factors. Tercanlioglu, ; Peacock, a. Flores and Day stated that to become an effective teacher is a long and complex process and emphasized the multi-dimensional, idiosyncratic and context-specific nature of teaching and the complex interplay between different sometimes conflicting teacher perceptions, beliefs and practices. Similarly, Freeman stated that teachers use specific mechanisms to construct new meanings and asserted that this complex mechanism has not yet been well understood. However, they did not provide a scheme to help differentiate between these beliefs. These contradictory aspects of L2 teacher beliefs e. Moscovici maintained that when individuals are confronted with a new idea they perceive it as a threat to the sense of continuity, and this fear forces individuals to make the unfamiliar explicit. Moscovici explained that the conflict between the familiar and the unfamiliar is always resolved in favor of the familiar. In other words the unfamiliar, after having been enhanced and transformed, is always absorbed into an already known category see Figure 1. The first mechanism aims to anchor the unknown to a familiar category. The aim of the second mechanism is to objectify the unknown, that is, to turn something abstract into something almost concrete, which the individual already knows Moscovici, In other words, it is a process whereby the individual transforms the unfamiliar into a more significant and easily comprehensible image. Moscovici maintained that such a process reassures and comforts individuals and re-establishes a sense of continuity. However, he argued that in the course of this process the familiar always remains unchanged. Moscovici explained that networks of beliefs e. Moscovici and Vignaux explained that the stable elements dominate the meaning of the peripheral elements, and that the core beliefs i. According to Moscovici these central kernels are social representations i. Moscovici and Vignaux stated that core beliefs express the permanence and uniformity of the social while the peripheral schemes express variability and diversity. Schematic representation of the central kernel theory Contrasting aspects of L2 teacher beliefs explained The researcher views L2-teacher-belief-formation as a dynamic progressive process through anchoring and objectification. Peripheral beliefs on the other hand are less systematic and more difficult for the individual to

retrieve and express explicitly. Beliefs, which are formed earlier life, are the prototypes that serve as a kind of reference when L2 teachers are constructing their beliefs about their professions. L2 Teacher core beliefs and peripheral beliefs from the perspective of central kernel theory. Conclusion Briefly, the differing facets and complex implicit elements in L2 teacher beliefs can be attributed to the peripheral and core belief distinctions. Research into L2 teacher beliefs need to focus on L2 teacher peripheral and core belief distinctions in order to be able to understand conflicting elements in L2 teacher beliefs. Increasing teacher awareness of the learning. Applied Linguistics, 25, Student learning research and theory - where do we currently stand? Theory and practice pp. Oxford Centre for Staff Development. Tension in a non-traditional Spanish classroom. Language Teaching Research, 11, Talking about grammar in language classroom. Language Awareness, 7, English Language Teaching Journal, 52, Studying teacher cognition in second language grammar teaching. The use of grammatical terminology in second language classrooms: A qualitative study of teacher practices and cognitions. Applied Linguistics, 20, English Language Teaching Journal, 53, Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe and do. Language Teaching, 36, Understanding the language teacher. Making sense of language teaching: Applied Linguistics, 22, The place of beliefs and of concept formation in a language teacher training theory. Teaching and Teacher Education, 21, Curriculum Inquiry, 15, Developing rhythm in teaching:

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